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Foreign AGRICULTURE

A REVIEW OF FOREIGN FARM POLICY, PRODUCTION, AND TRADE

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POULTRY IMPROVEMENT IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE

WARTIME RATIONING IN EIRE

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AGRICULTURAL RELATIONS WITH MEXICO . . . .

By Kathryn Wylie*

Wartime cooperation between the United States and Mexico is fostering closer relations between their essentially complementary economies. United States manufactured goods and prepared foodstuffs are being exchanged for badly needed Mexican minerals, fibers, and forest products. Mexico also contributes cattle, vegetables, and fruit to the United States wartime food supply. The current period of greater exchange was preceded by a period of disagreements and misunderstandings which seriously hindered the flow of trade between the two countries. The proposed trade agreement is one of several steps that are expected to reduce those hindrances and to aid the common war effort as well as to broaden the basis of trade in the post-war years.

The United States gets many complementary agricultural products and others supplementing its own production from Mexico. The two most valuable agricultural imports in normal times - bananas and cattle - together accounted for 8.6 percent of the total imports of 120 million dollars, and 19.2 percent of imports for consumption during 1938-40. Copper for refining and export and precious metals contribute a major portion of the value of imports from Mexico.

Vegetable food products accounted for five percent of the value of total United States exports to Mexico in 1938-40. Machinery and vehicles are the most valuable export, accounting for 38 percent of the 78 million dollars of exports in 1938-40. Metals and metal manufactures accounted for another 17 percent, and the remaining 40 percent included chemicals, wood and paper, non-metallic minerals, and textiles. Automobiles, including parts and accessories, formed the principal individual item, and accounted for 14.6 percent of total exports.

UNITED STATES AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS TO MEXICO

Mexico is largely self-sufficient in many food and fiber products, but domestic production must be supplemented by imports from the United States. The outstanding agricultural imports are lard and oilseeds, condensed and evaporated milk, cigarettes and certain types of tobacco, dried fruits, and wheat and corn in years of low domestic yields (table 1). For most of those products the United States is the principal supplier, furnishing from 50 to nearly 100 percent of the imported supplies. Reliance upon imports in many sections of Mexico is intensified by the lack of adequate domestic transportation facilities to move Mexican products from one section to another. Owing to wide variations in climate, Mexico can produce henequen in Yucatan, bananas on the southern seacoasts, other fruits and vegetables in the northwest states, cotton in the Laguna district, small grains on the temperate plateaus, and corn for the tortilla in all States.

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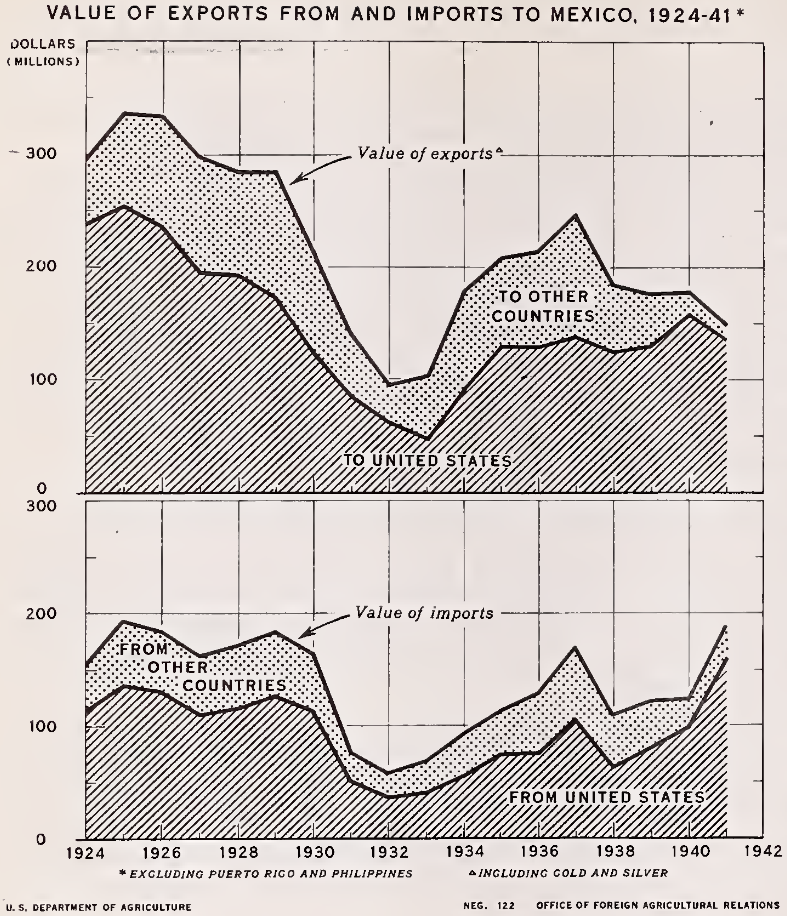
* Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations.



VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM AND IMPORTS TO MEXICO, 1924-41*

*EXCLUDING PUERTO RICO AND PHILIPPINES ΔINCLUDING GOLD AND SILVER

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FIGURE 1.—Value of exports from and imports to Mexico, 1924 to 1941.

United States agricultural exports to Mexico have been increasing recently. Lard exports, for example, tripled between 1938 and 1940; vegetable oil and fat, and evaporated milk exports increased more than 30 percent; and egg exports, 85 percent. Barley exports rose from 69,000 bushels in 1938 to 509,000 bushels in 1940, and cigarette exports more than doubled, from 30,751,000 to 75,334,000. Very little corn and wheat were exported in 1940 because good harvests in Mexico assured a plentiful supply of these grains for domestic needs. In 1938, however, 991,000 bushels of corn and 2,894,000 bushels of wheat were shipped from the United States, and in 1939 2,141,000 bushels of corn, and 1,970,000 bushels of wheat.

UNITED STATES AGRICULTURAL IMPORTS FROM MEXICO

The largest agricultural imports from Mexico by value are products not produced in the United States - bananas, coffee, chicle, and henequen, imports of lightweight cattle, however, supplement our own production. Mexico supplied in 1939 all the henequen, three-quarters of the chicle, more than 90 percent of the lightweight cattle and one-fifth of the bananas imported. Other agricultural imports of importance to the United States include guayule rubber, istle or tampico fiber, hides and skins, feedstuffs, and fresh vegetables (table 2). Imports of some of these were increasing before the war, particularly feeds, cattle and cattle hides, guayule, chicle, and hard fibers. Wheat byproduct feed imports increased from 6,649 short tons in 1938 to 16,219 tons in 1940, molasses imports (not for human consumption) jumped from 1 million to 8 million gallons, and wet salted cattle hides from 542,000 pounds to almost 5 million pounds.

Imports of raw cotton, on the other hand, which were largely reexported from United States ports, declined from 26 million pounds in 1938 to 3.6 million pounds in 1940, and imports of bananas from 15.5 million bunches to 6.6 million.

The United States is Mexico's best market for most of its agricultural exports. Approximately 99 percent of all Mexican exports of bananas, cattle, vanilla beans, guayule rubber, candelilla wax, goat and kid skins, limes and lime oil, and fresh vegetables enter the United States as well as most of the chicle, coffee, henequen, and istle fibers. Germany, the Netherlands, and Japan were good customers for cotton and other fibers before the war, but those markets are now closed.

Many of the agricultural products exported from Mexico are produced primarily for the export market (see table 3). More than three-fourths of the henequen produced for example, is exported in the form of fiber, and much of the remainder leaves the country in the form of binder twine. Banana production is largely for export, almost three-quarters of the total production being exported, although about 5 million stems of plantains (a cooking banana) are grown for home use. Very little vanilla is retained in Mexico, the bulk of the production going to the United States market.

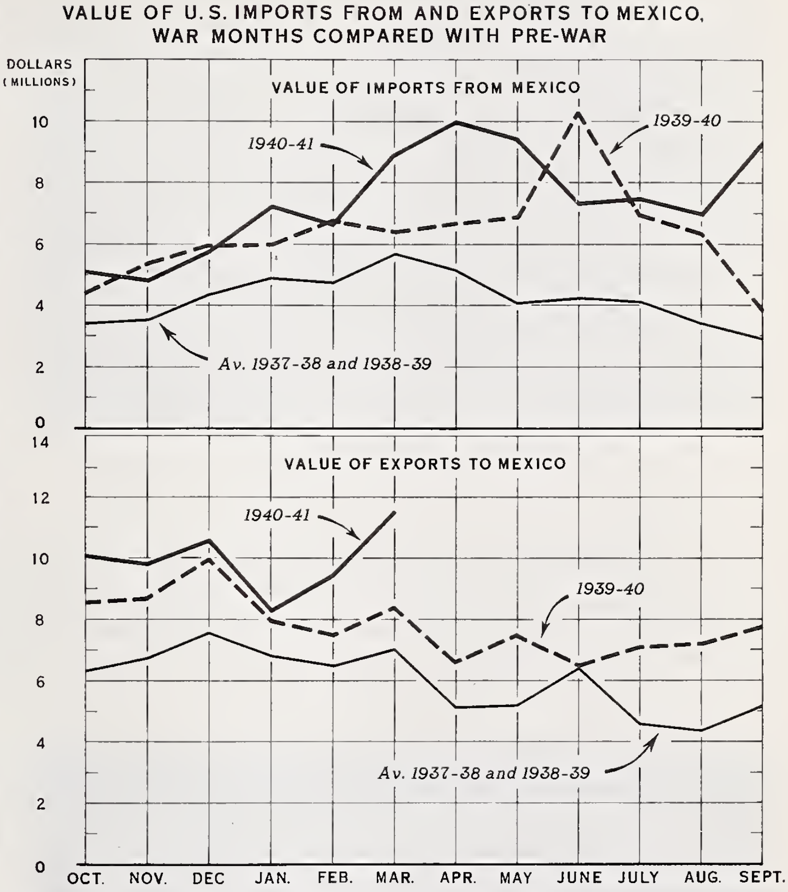

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FIGURE 2.—Value of United States imports from and exports to Mexico, war months compared with pre-war.

While only a third of all tomatoes produced are exported, two-thirds of the production of the two States (Sonora and Sinaloa) producing vegetables for the United States market reach consumers in the United States. Before the war only 15 percent of the lime production was exported in the form of fresh fruit, although some of it was exported as lime oil.

Exports of certain forest and other uncultivated crops are important in the total trade, although production data to measure the proportion exported are available for only one or two years. Harvesting of these crops, however, consists usually in gathering the wild product in response to market needs, and no doubt exports are a good indication of total production. Exports of guayule rubber, candelilla wax, and chicle increased steadily from 1934 through 1941, while exports of istle fibers have fluctuated widely (table 4).

Cattle exports, one of the most important agricultural items, increased from 60,413 head in 1934 to 542,705 in 1941 (table 5). Out of an estimated annual production

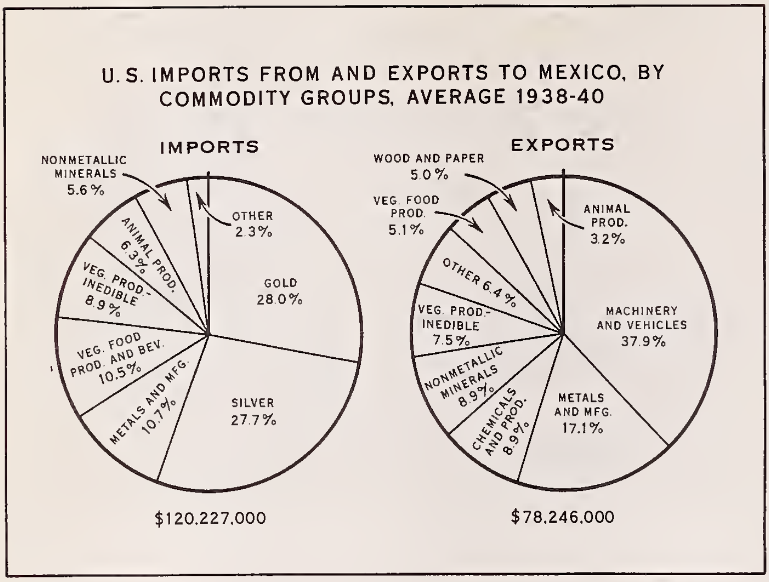

FIGURE 3.—Imports from and exports to Mexico by commodity groups, average 1938-40.

of 2 million cattle, then, approximately one-fourth are exported to the United States. These exports, however, are almost entirely from the 5 northern border States of Sonora, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo Leon, and Tamaulipas, and of these Sonora and Chihuahua supply the largest number. At least 90 percent of the annual production of these 2 States is for the export market.

Sonora and Chihuahua are among the 5 most important cattle-producing States. Of the total of 10,082,958 cattle in 1930, Chihuahua had 685,828 and Sonora 705,270. Data from the 1940 Census are not complete, but cattle population in Chichuhua is estimated to have increased to 907,334.

FIGURE 4.—Transportation of liquid rubber (latex). (Courtesy of the Pan American Union.)

WARTIME INFLUENCE ON AGRICULTURAL TRADE

The war is focussing attention more strongly than ever on the complementary resources of the two countries. As the war picture blackened in mid 1941, representatives of the two Governments entered into an over-all agreement providing that the Metal Reserve Company and the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States would contract to take all of Mexico's export surplus[1] of certain fibers, metals, and other products that could not be disposed of through regular commercial channels. Specific agreements have already been announced on henequen, alcohol, castor beans, rubber, and several metals. All of these products supplement production in the United States. The Defense Supplies Corporation contracted with the Henequeneros de Yucatan, a government-sponsored producer cooperative, to buy the entire henequen export surplus through June 30, 1945. The Rubber Reserve Company has agreed to purchase through December 31, 1946 the exportable surplus of tree rubber and all guayule and other plant rubber produced in Mexico, and the Commodity Credit Corporation has contracted to buy the exportable surplus of alcohol produced through February 1943.

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[1] Certain strategic materials are subject to export control in the United States. They cannot be exported except to western hemisphere countries and only to those in the hemisphere that have export control or agree not to reexport them outside. "Export surplus" of these Mexican products, therefore, means surplus that cannot be sold to American purchasers.

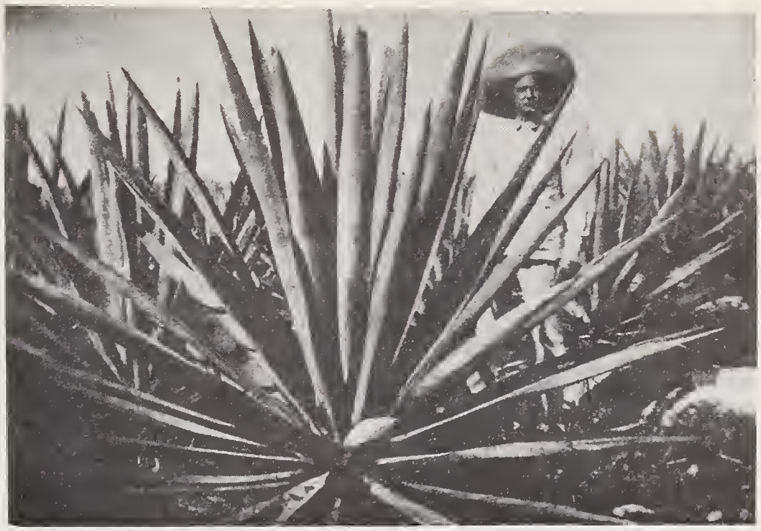

FIGURE 5.—The henequen plant. (Courtesy of the Pan American Union.)

The Metal Reserve Company and the Defense Supplies Corporation, as well as certain other agencies of the United States Government, have authority to import products that are essential to the war effort free of duty. Many of the products from Mexico are essential and strategic materials and fall under this authority. The larger purchases that result from this policy provide exchange to pay for increased United States exports to Mexico. Both imports from and exports to Mexico will, therefore, continue high in volume and value during the war.

Leaders in the two countries are exploring the possibilities of increasing the production of complementary crops in Mexico to provide a firmer basis for post-war trade. Already cooperative experimental work on rubber from the Brazilian rubber tree, *Hevea*, has been started. A technical mission from the United States Department of Agriculture visited Mexico in 1941 to determine whether tropical and semi-tropical products

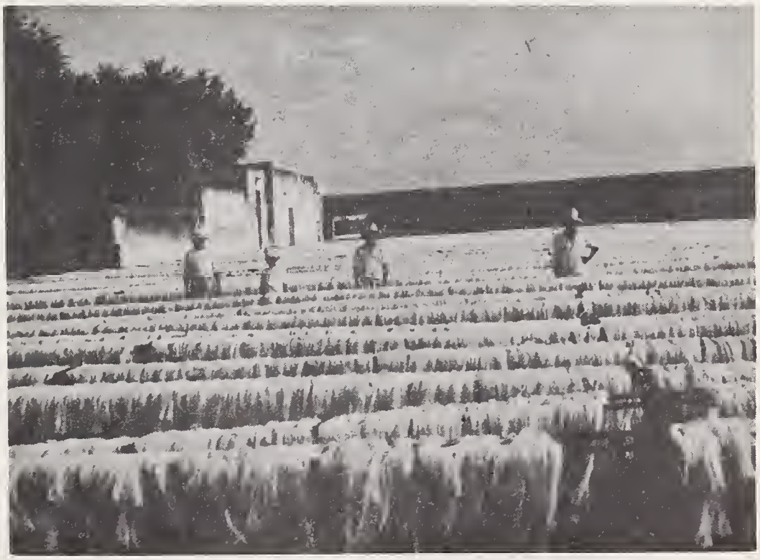

FIGURE 6.—Henequen drying.

formerly imported from other countries could be obtained in Mexico, either from products already growing there or from those that might be developed. Crops not produced, the export market for which could be expanded, include kapok, from the fiber tree; chia, a mint used in beverages; vanilla; rice; and castor beans.

The ordinary export outlets for henequen, lechuguilla and palma fibers, candelilla wax, lentils, chickpeas, and Castilla rubber are limited, but war needs have increased the demands for most of these. Henequen is already the most important complementary crop of Mexico and one that the United States needs now more than ever. Research and advertising may develop a wider post-war market for many products in this group. Improvement in yields, quality of product, and technique of production would no doubt increase the profits from export of coffee, cacao, bananas, sugar, cassava, tea, and limes. In addition, growing conditions as well as an active demand favor the development of pyrethrum, paprika, licorice, citronella, abacá and pepper.

TABLE 1.–*United States exports of principal agricultural products to Mexico, average 1938-40*

PRODUCT	UNIT	VALUE	QUANTITY	UNITED STATES SHARE OF TOTAL IMPORTS INTO MEXICO [1]
		1,000 dollars		*Percent*
Wheat	1,000 bushels	1,375	1,653	100
Lard	1,000 pounds	906	13,559	100
Corn	1,000 bushels	773	1,044	84
Vegetable oils[2] inedible	-	295	-	30 - 100
Fresh fruit[3]	-	284	-	100
Dairy products, total	-	231	-	-
Milk, evaporated	1,000 pounds	95	1,496	100
Barley	1,000 pounds	160	227	50
Hops	1,000 pounds	158	384	78
Malt	1,000 bushels	147	124	68
Oilseeds	1,000 pounds	144	5,583	60 - 100
Vegetable oils[4] edible	1,000 pounds	138	1,236	(5)
Cattle for breeding	Number	121	1,603	100
Cigarettes	M	110	47,440	99
Meat products	1,000 pounds	106	464	30 - 100
Eggs in shell	1,000 dozen	97	485	100
Dried fruits[6]	1,000 pounds	96	2,015	95 - 100
Potatoes	1,000 pounds	59	5,777	100
Unmanufactured tobacco	1,000 pounds	45	210	100

[1] Based on 1939 data.

[2] Vegetable soap stock most important item in group.

[3] Largely grapes and apples.

[4] Half cocoa butter.

[5] Cocoa butter = 69 percent.

[6] Largely raisins and prunes.

Trade of the United States with Mexico in 1940, International Reference Service, Vol. 1, No. 63, Aug. 1941. U. S. Dept. of Commerce.

TABLE 2.–*United States imports of principal agricultural products from Mexico, average 1938-1940*

PRODUCT	UNIT	QUANTITY	VALUE	PERCENT SUPPLIED BY MEXICO[1]
			1,000 dollars	*Percent*
Bananas	1,000 stems	12,008	5,350	21.7
Cattle, all	1,000 head	392	5,004	[2] 29.4
Coffee	1,000 pounds	53,588	4,260	3.3
Sisal and henequen	Long tons	50,002	3,787	[3] 40.4
Chicle	1,000 pounds	8,389	2,823	74.2
Cotton, raw	1,000 pounds	12,793	1,044	8.9
Vanilla beans	1,000 pounds	278	982	25.8
Guayule rubber	1,000 pounds	6,253	617	100.0
Goat and kid hides[4]	1,000 pounds	2,347	601	4.2
Tomatoes, fresh	1,000 pounds	19,514	596	42.3
Istle or tampico fiber	Long tons	8,067	570	99.9
Candelilla wax	1,000 pounds	3,471	452	100.0
Chickpeas, dried	1,000 pounds	6,181	266	85.8
Cattle hides[5]	1,000 pounds	2,618	198	8.6
Bran shorts and other wheat byproducts feed	Short tons	12,048	190	3.5
Cotton, linters	1,000 pounds	6,763	184	17.4
Pineapples, bulk	1,000 pounds	3,325	132	97.8
Cottonseed, oil cake, and oil-cake meal	1,000 pounds	12,126	118	95.0
Peppers, fresh	1,000 pounds	3,615	117	55.4
Peas, green	1,000 pounds	2,030	98	98.7
Lime oil	1,000 pounds	39	91	15.6
Limes, fresh or in brine	1,000 pounds	2,981	56	57.3
Garlic	1,000 pounds	1,378	47	25.5
Coconut or copra oil cake and oil-cake meal	1,000 pounds	2,157	24	[6] 4.6

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[1] Based on 1939 data.

[2] For cattle weighing more than 200 pounds and less than 700 pounds Mexico furnished 93.2 percent of the total.

[3] Sisal and henequen classified together in import statistics; Mexico furnishes 100 percent of the henequen.

[4] Wet salted hides.

[5] Dry and salted hides.

[6] Major supply before the war came from the Philippine Islands.

Trade of the United States with Mexico in 1940, International Reference Service, Vol. No.53, August 1941, U. S. Dept. of Commerce.

TABLE 3.–*Mexican production and exports*[1] *of selected products, 1934-41*

PRODUCT	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	AVERAGE 1934-1940	EXPORTS AS PERCENT OF PRODUCTION
	Long tons	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Long tons*	*Percent*
Henequen:										
Production	102,445	79,850	113,909	108,791	78,800	84,356	94,721	(2)	94,625	
Exports:										
Total	67,242	88,333	101,102	75,893	57,003	75,212	51,644	90,146	73,776	78
To United States	44,373	73,317	78,821	61,269	51,269	51,238	50,426	75,133		
	1,000 pounds	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	
Coffee:										
Production	101,478	115,565	139,959	131,899	110,748	120,918	115,486	119,256	119,436	
Exports:										
Total	83,360	69,901	94,416	77,273	77,419	77,293	68,098	65,081	78,251	66
To United States	38,869	33,307	53,274	45,199	52,489	60,044	54,286	61,278		
Vanilla:										
Production[3]	240	254	317	346	390	390	476	(2)	345	
Exports:										
Total	209	171	359	322	336	272	470	573	306	89
To United States	208	170	357	318	322	267	470	573		
Tomatoes:										
Production	112,441	115,894	151,502	166,529	144,015	176,626	177,164	278,601	149,167	
Exports:										
Total	30,087	55,753	61,700	74,072	48,042	30,212	35,573	95,667	47,920	[4] 32
To United States	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)		
Limes:										
Production	40,920	47,747	47,630	44,094	53,118	68,219	71,832	(2)	53,366	
Exports:										
Total	5,955	8,189	10,062	10,729	8,373	6,795	5,680	6,464	7,969	[6] 15
To United States	5,955	8,189	10,042	10,706	8,373	6,794	5,680	(2)		
	1,000 stems	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	*1,000 stems*	
Bananas:										
Production	12,154	19,768	18,468	19,469	16,883	17,276	9,536	(2)	16,222	
Exports:										
Total	8,056	11,065	14,529	14,752	14,345	13,429	6,586	5,165	11,823	73
To United States	8,056	11,065	14,529	14,752	14,345	13,429	6,558	5,165		

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[1] Actual export data. Imports of these products in unprocessed form are negligible and are not taken into account here.

[2] Not available.

[3] Crop year beginning in year stated.

[4] Production of Sinaloa and Sonora 1939-40 equals 53,856,000 pounds. Exports that year were 66 percent of the production in those two States.

[5] All to United States.

[6] An additional quantity is exported as lime oil. 1940 lime oil exports were 15,000 pounds.

Note: Production data on crop year basis ending in year stated, exports on calendar year basis.

Anuario Estadístico, 1939 and 1940, Anuario Estadístico del Comercio Exterior, 1939 and 1940, and Revista de Estadística, May 1942. Production figures on vanilla from consular report by L. D. Mallory, Agricultural Attaché, and William P. Cochran, Jr., Consul, Mexican Vanilla Production and Trade.

Table 4.–*Exports of selected products, 1934-41*

YEAR	GUAYULE RUBBER	CANDELILLA WAX	CHICLE	ISTLE FIBER
	1,000 pounds	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*Long tons*
1934	1,166	2,251	5,769	14,627
1935	1,101	2,971	6,856	21,123
1936	2,853	4,393	6,690	17,163
1937	7,675	5,616	8,786	23,849
1938	6,178	3,053	7,500	16,283
1939	6,408	7,433	11,145	20,663
1940	10,125	5,763	12,306	10,622
1941	11,897	7,876	12,610	12,382
Percent to United States 1940	99	100	90	96

Anuario Estadístico del Comercio Exterior, 1939, and Revista de Estadística, May 1942.

Table 5.–*Mexican cattle exports, 1934-41*

YEAR	EXPORTS	TO UNITED STATES
	Number	*Number*
1934	60,413	59,739
1935	264,727	264,330
1936	176,787	176,465
1937	192,928	192,764
1938	293,169	292,890
1939	541,187	540,893
1940	417,996	417,960
1941	542,705	541,686

Anuario Estadístico del Comercio Exterior, 1939, and Revista de Estadística, May 1942.

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BRITISH COUNTY WAR AGRICULTURAL COMMITTEES . . .

By Mary E. Long*

As early as May 1939 the British Minister of Agriculture announced the formulation of the general arrangements to guarantee food supplies in the event of war and to expand food production in the United Kingdom. These plans included preparations for the delegation of responsibilities to both central and local organizations. The Ministry of Agriculture was to assume direction of the central unit, while the local organizations were to be set up in the form of executive committees in each county. This, briefly, is the history of an organization that has done much to increase and maintain British wartime agricultural production.

On August 25, 1939, the Emergency Defence Powers legislation or the Defence Regulations of 1939 became effective. In the first paragraph of Section 66 of this document, also known as S. R. and O., 1939, No. 927, a definite statement of the powers delegated to the county war agricultural executive committees is given as follows: "the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries may by order provide for delegating, to such extent and subject to such restrictions as may be specified in the order, to any person or body of persons appointed or approved by him, all or any of his functions," such as preservation of agricultural land, control of cultivation and termination of agricultural tenancies, killing of rabbits, pests or game (for the purpose of minimizing injuries to crops and pastures and increasing the supply of food in the United Kingdom). "Any such order may contain such provisions as the Minister thinks proper with respect to the procedure of any body to whom functions are so delegated and with respect to other incidental and supplementary matters."

These committees were first appointed by the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries for England and Wales and were known as the War Agricultural Executive Committees and limited to a membership of seven individuals in each county chosen from members of such bodies as the County Councils,[1] the National Farmers' Union, the Women's Land Army and similar agricultural groups plus the assignment to each committee of an executive advisory officer, generally the county agricultural official or organizer. As the committees are created to function solely under war conditions, they obviously have been given much wider powers than the ordinary county agricultural committees[2] which were existent in Great Britain during peacetime, and for all practical purposes have ceased to function during the war emergency.

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[*] Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations.

[1] Local authority groups created by the Government to Administrate such Acts of Parliament and Orders as: Diseases of Animals Acts, 1894-1927, and Orders thereunder, Allotments Acts, 1908-1926, Increase of Rent, etc., Act, 1920, and its amendments of 1920-1925, Rats and Mice (Destruction Act), 1919, and Food and Drugs (Adulteration) Act of 1928. These agencies also sponsored the county agricultural education under the provisions of the Board of Agriculture Act, 1889.

[2] The work of the County Agricultural Committees established under the Ministery of Agriculture and Fisheries Act, 1919, as agents of the Ministry, was practically confined to carrying out the provisions of the Corn Production Acts (Repeal) Act, with respect to the destruction of weeds.--National Farmers Union Year Book, 1931.

While the Minister of Agriculture retained general control of the committees, from the time the war began in September 1939 these organizations were given as free a hand as possible to get on with the job of converting millions of acres of uncultivated and waste lands to a state of productiveness. The members of these committees are generally residents of the county in which they serve and possess a wealth of local agricultural knowledge and experience to guide them in their decisions in the exercise of their delegated powers.

FUNCTIONING OF COMMITTEES

Each county war agricultural committee in Great Britain functions as a service organization to an average of from 5,000 to 6,000 farmers per county. A conservative estimate of the cost to the British Government of maintenance of one of these committees over a period of one year is thought to be in the neighborhood of £25,000.[3] This amount represents salary payments to administrative officers, members of technical staffs and general office personnel responsible for the direction of operations of central executive committees, district committees, and sub-committees, as well as the necessary travelling expenses of some 70 persons in each county contributing their services to the committees on a voluntary basis.

The duties which fall under the jurisdiction of the committees are: (1) Preservation and maintenance of agricultural land for the production of food. (2) Control of cultivation, management and use of land in order to secure maximum production of food from the farms. (This control is based on special statutory orders of the Government enacted through the Ministry of Agriculture.)[4] (3) Termination of any tenancy of agricultural land if it is deemed that the land is badly cultivated and not producing to the best of its capacity. (4) Instruction of farmers in the most successful measures to be employed for the destruction of birds, rabbits, deer, vermin and pests which are harmful to crops.

Direction of Production

Just prior to the advent of the war in the majority of the localities of Great Britain, county sub-committees and individual rural district sub-committees were appointed to deal with each specific duty entrusted to the executive committees in the promotion of the production campaign. In general the problems dealt with by these sub-committees and their classification headings are:

Production.- (a) Organization of an extensive plow-up campaign under compulsory powers. (b) Direction of cultivations. (c) Cropping. (d) Management and use of the land to assure maximum production of crops and stock.

Labor.- (a) Creation of a reserve of farm labor. (b) Placing of "reserves" - including members of the Women's Land Army - on the farms.

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[3] The figures in this statement are taken from an analysis of statistical information concerning the financial aspects of county war agricultural executive committees supplied to the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations by J. A. Scott Watson, British Agricultural Attaché, British Embassy, Washington, D. C.

[4] Most important orders made by the Minister of Agriculture governing exercise of this particular duty are: General Cultivation of Lands Order, 1939, S. R. and O., No. 1078, dated September 1, 1939, Cultivation of Lands (County Boroughs) Order, 1939, S. R. and O., No. 1079, dated September 1, 1939; the Cultivation of Lands (Allotments) Order, 1939, S. R. and O., No. 1316, dated September 18, 1939, Trespass on Agricultural Land (Allotments Order), 1939, S. R. and O., No. 1317, dated September 18, 1939, and Cultivation of Lands Order, No. 2, 1940, S. R. and O., No. 1197, dated July 9, 1940.

Machinery.- (a) Arrangements for the supply and use of farm machinery, tractors, and implements held in reserve against an emergency.

Livestock and Feedstuffs.- (a) Supervision of the supply of feedstuffs from merchants to farmers. (b) Examination and approval of each farmer's requirements. (c) Control of supplies of seeds, fertilizers, and other farmers' requisites in which there are apt to be shortages.

Drainage.- (a) Soil conservation measures to be adopted in regions subject to flooding. (b) Conversion of swamp and marsh lands to arable areas through proper drainage operations.

Insects and Pests.- (a) Advice to farmers on the control of pests, and arrangements for supplying farmers with insecticides and fungicides.

Horticulture.- (a) Sponsorship of programs for a greater utilization of land, and the advocation of the growth of food crops in preference to the production of flowers.

On May 3, 1939, the British Government announced the payment of a subsidy of £2 per acre for all grassland plowed between that time and the end of September of that year. With the outbreak of war in September, the plowing-up payments to farmers were extended to include "the plowing up of land in any subsequent year falling wholly or partly within the war period"[5] as it applies to the specifications of the original legislation enacted in 1939.[6] In the actual operation of the plow-up campaign cases arose where farmers were unable to finance themselves to meet the immediate costs incurred in land cultivations, and as a result arrangements were made by the Government in December 1939 to extend the powers of the county war agricultural executive committees to undertake the financing of the cultivation of the land for the farmers, later recovering the costs from the Government subsidy payments or from returns realized from the sale of the harvested crops.

As an assurance of a maximum agricultural production of food and feedstuffs for the 1941 season, a national survey was conducted by the county war agricultural executive committees to be used as a guide in the possible reorganization of the management of individual farms to further the national interest. The survey consisted of a classification of farms as to their productive capacity in order to determine what changes might need to be made in farm management, employment of additional labor, reclamation of land, or other factors which would increase food production.

Distribution of Agricultural Machinery

Another important function of the county war committees has been the supervision of agricultural machinery and implements in an attempt to equalize insofar as possible the distribution of machinery on the basis of the acreage to be plowed, the use of existing tractors on the farms to the fullest extent of their capacity, and the utilization of machinery contractors. In working out these programs most of the counties have established machinery sub-committees and appointed a machinery officer to assist in the work. When all efforts to maintain farmer cooperation in the use of machinery fail, the committees are required by the Ministry of Agriculture to undertake the farm work themselves with use of governmentally owned tractors and other implements.

Two machinery rationing schemes under the direction of these local organizations have come into being within the last few months. Since October 1941 any farmer wishing to buy an implement or tractor imported from either Canada or the United States has had to secure the approval of the county war agricultural executive committee in the county of his residence. Beginning February 1, 1942, this same control has been extended to include British-made tractor distribution to facilitate the availability of new machinery to those individuals whose need is greatest.

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[5] Ploughing Grants Order, 1940, S. R. and O., No. 787, dated April 29, 1940.

[6] Part IV, Agricultural Development Act, 1939.

An added emphasis on the work of the sub-committee was noted in January 1942 when the Ministry of Agriculture announced its intention of maintaining demonstration farms in each county. This program endeavors to teach farmers the most economical and practical methods employed to obtain the maximum agricultural crop yields. Sub-committees are given wide authority in making the arrangements for this scheme and also have the use of trained experts for demonstration purposes.

SOME RESULTS OF THE WORK

Some idea of the progress made by these committees during the first year of the war is evidenced by the fact that in January 1940 the Government found it necessary to extend many of the powers of these agencies as originally granted under the Emergency Powers Act of 1939 to facilitate a still greater increase in arable acreage. This new legislation, the Agriculture (Miscellaneous War Provisions) Bill, endeavored to provide the mechanism for the recovery of sums representing the increase in value of derelict or badly cultivated land of which possession was assumed by the war agricultural executive committees, and money expended either from the funds of the Ministry of Agriculture or the aforementioned committees for the purpose of enabling the land to be properly farmed or of securing increased efficiency in the farming of the land.

Still further recognition of the importance of the work performed by the executive committees in each locality was reflected in a speech by the present Minister of Agriculture, Mr. R. S. Hudson, a short time after entering upon his duties, to the effect that staffs of farm institutes and many colleges were to be placed at the disposal of the county committees to aid in the new food production campaign. "Such help as these staffs can give will be required by the war agricultural committees who are being charged with the immediate duty of finding out how production can be still further increased on every one of the existing 300,000 farms, and what will be needed to make this production possible - whether it is drainage, fertilizers, or machinery."

In the effort to achieve the 1941 agricultural production goals a new agricultural measure, the Agriculture (Miscellaneous War Provisions) No. 2 Bill was introduced into the House of Commons. This measure was very important from the viewpoint of its land drainage grants. Previous legislation, the 1940 No. 1 Bill, to which reference has already been made provided grants for mole drainage[7] only, whereas the new law enabled the Government to make grants for schemes providing field drainage and cleansing or other improvement of ditches on any agricultural land on which it might be considered necessary that this action be taken to facilitate a greater production of agricultural commodities. Actual administration of this law was to be handled through the county war agricultural executive committees' approval of all drainage projects. In addition, this Act also provided for the construction of hard roads in the fenland areas, authorizing the county committees to supervise and manage the actual work in accordance to plans recommended by the Ministry of Agriculture.

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[7] This method of drainage derives its name from the mole plow used in ditching the land.

Wartime production results in the United Kingdom during the last three years are proof of the worthwhile accomplishments which have been realized through the county committee program. Most British farmers have recognized the necessity of some form of control as a stimulus and encouragement for better farming and are apparently anxious that county executive committees in some advisory capacity should continue to be maintained in the post-war period.

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POULTRY IMPROVEMENT IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE . . . . .

By Clayton E. Whipple*

In any plan for the post-war reconstruction of eastern and southeastern European agriculture, improved poultry husbandry on the millions of peasant farms, which predominate in the region, must play a fundamental role. Poultry keeping forms an admirable farm enterprise for peasant farmers, especially when a cooperative society exists to provide necessary hatching and brooding facilities and for handling the marketing of surplus poultry products. In fact, a small, well-organized and operated poultry enterprise is one of the most effective means of increasing the cash income of the small individual peasant farm. A well conducted poultry flock of forty or fifty birds often doubles the cash income of a peasant farm of the region averaging as little as fifty dollars per year.

The basic nature of the peasant farming enterprise in southeastern Europe includes a number of elements favorable to the development of a farm flock. These include the small size of the farms, averaging 10 to 15 acres; low cash income; the extensive nature of the farming system, devoted in the past chiefly to cereal grain production; an abundance of unused labor throughout much of the year; and the almost universal presence of a large fenced-in farmyard and of unused building space, which could be converted into an adequate poultry house.

Throughout southeastern Europe, poultry husbandry is of a very primitive nature. Poor methods of breeding, feeding, and housing and high incidence of disease prevail. The birds run wild throughout the village and except in winter, must pick up most of their own living. Winter feeding usually consists of sporadically throwing a little grain to them. In general no poultry house of any sort is provided, and the birds roost in trees, on fences or other convenient objects even during the winter season, which is severe in most parts of the region. No organized system of breeding is employed involving either the quantitative or qualitative selection cf male birds or the culling out of old or poorly producing hens.

Tuberculosis, bacillary white diarrhea and other diseases are uncontrolled and spread easily due to the conditions under which the enterprise is conducted and the lack of trained veterinarians or poultry technicians. The average egg production per bird per year is about 65 to 75 eggs; the poultry are so scrawny as to be of little value for food and the average flock is only 12 to 15 in number. Nevertheless this small, inefficient enterprise provides an important share of the small cash income of the average peasant family. Eggs must be sold in order to purchase salt, matches, kerosene, and the few other essential purchases of the peasant household and hence few are retained at home. A recent survey shows that only seventy eggs per capita per year are consumed in Bulgarian peasant households; somewhat above the general standard of living prevailing in that country and throughout the region. When the poultry enterprise is increased in size or improved in quality, the home consumption as well as the cash income of the farm increases greatly.

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* Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations.

The following account of a long-time program of poultry improvement in Bulgaria illustrates what can be done through the application of poultry science to peasant conditions. Somewhat similar techniques could be applied to the same enterprise in other countries. In fact the services of competent United Nations or even local personnel could be utilized in developing these programs in other countries.

In 1932, in order to provide leadership for the solution of this poultry problem in Bulgaria, a capable young Bulgarian poultry specialist, Director of the Central Poultry Experimental Station at Sofia, was granted a year's research fellowship in the United States. He returned with a practical program for applying scientific practices to Bulgarian farm conditions, which he immediately put into effect at the Central Poultry Experimental Station.

A fundamental factor was the gift of a few Rhode Island Red and White Leghorn cockerels and pullets from leading American flocks. This breeding stock was used so well that the present flock at the Central Poultry Experimental Station (apart from purebred Black Minorcas for southern Bulgarian conditions) is almost entirely confined to a purebred Rhode Island Red flock and a purebred White Leghorn flock, each descended from the few birds brought from the United States. Through shipments of cockerels, pullets, and hatching eggs, the flocks at all other Bulgarian experimental stations and government farms are also descended from the American stock. The poultry flocks in 120 selected villages have likewise been bred up through cockerels from the station and government farms as well as shipments of hatching eggs from them, averaging over 150,000 eggs per annum to incubators located in these villages and operated on a community basis there.

Previous to the introduction of this new blood and technique, the average annual production per bird at the station was about 135 eggs. In 1934-35 it reached 175 and in 1935-36 195 eggs, and now is one of the highest in the world with a number of birds producing well over 300 eggs in a laying year. More eggs were distributed for hatching

FIGURE 1.—Bulgarian village scene.

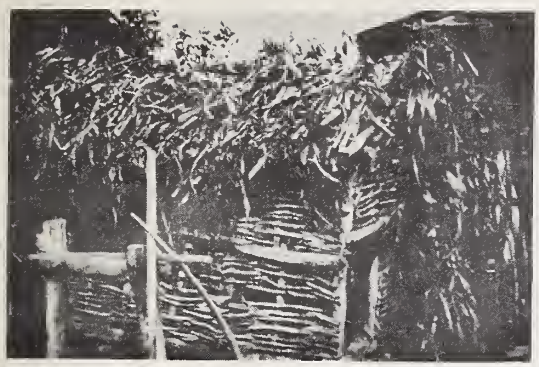

FIGURE 2.—Old insanitary poultry house.

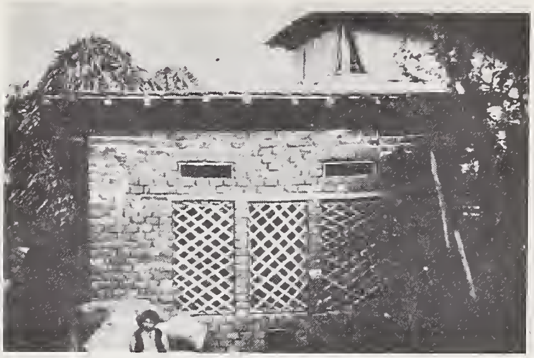

FIGURE 3.—Improved home-made poultry house.

in 1935-36 than during the entire period from the founding of the station in 1928 to 1934. During 1935-36, 20,046 eggs for hatching, 5,324 cockerels for breeding, and a large number of pullets for creating demonstration flocks were distributed from the station.

The station conducted experiments in feeding, housing, and disease control applicable to peasant conditions. Another important phase of its activity has been to provide an intensive seven-month course in the fundamentals of incubation, brooding, poultry feeding, sanitation, etc., for young men destined to become poultry technicians in selected demonstration villages.

The first step in extending improved poultry farming to peasant conditions was to select a village near Sofia as a center for developing the extension technique. About half of the poultry of the village had died from bacillary white diarrhea and the peasants desired assistance in checking its ravages. The surviving birds were blood-tested and all showing a positive reaction were destroyed. A number of the peasant farmers expressed a desire to develop demonstration poultry flocks. They were sold purebred Rhode Island Red pullets and cockerels at 20 cents each, the same price they secured from selling their surviving disease-free birds for meat. The birds infected with bacillary white diarrhea and killed after blood-testing were replaced free of charge by purebred stock from the station.

A local poultry association was formed and the first graduate of the station's poultry technician's course was placed in the village to work with it. He received a salary of $15 per month and living quarters, which was considered satisfactory by the village and the technician himself in terms of the prevailing salary standards of Bulgaria. The men selected as demonstration farmers were given a subsidy of $10 each and technical advice in building small modern poultry houses using local materials and labor for the purpose. These men averaged 135 to 150 eggs per bird during the next laying year as compared to the village average of 75 to 80 eggs.

The program for the demonstration farms included:

1. Disease prevention, involving regular cleaning and whitewashing, fencing in poultry yards, testing against bacillary white diarrhea, etc;
2. Improvement of poultry housing chiefly through remodeling present buildings;
3. Economical and efficient feeding of poultry, including the use of home-grown grains, green food during all seasons, condiments, fresh water, etc.;
4. Building up the poultry flocks by use of purebred cockerels, selecting eggs for hatching, culling out old birds and poor producers.

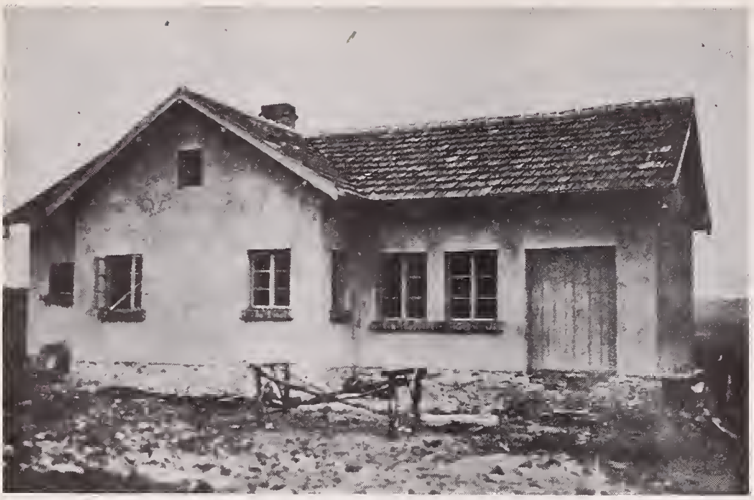

FIGURE 4.—Community poultry breeding center.

5. Hatching eggs with community incubators.

In order to improve the poultry in the village, the association was persuaded to collect all male birds which were sold for meat and replaced without extra cost by purebred Rhode Island Red cockerels from the station.

A small building to house the incubation and brooding activities was built with local materials and local labor and equipment provided from a fund to develop poultry raising in Bulgaria. Eggs were hatched early and the chicks reared to the age of two months before being sold to the peasants at the cost price of about 8 cents each. As a result, these pullets began laying early in the fall and produced eggs during the period when eggs sell for 2 or 3 cents each. Under normal procedure for peasant conditions chicks hatched by hens are produced much later and begin laying during the late winter when eggs bring less than 1 cent each. The demonstration farms also sold cockerels at good prices to other farmers in this and nearby villages. Only purebred Rhode Island Reds are now kept in the village and the average egg production per bird has risen to 125 eggs annually. An average profit of $1 per bird is now secured in the village and a flock of 50 pullets will thus double the previous cash income of about $50 per farm per year. The village now supplies chicks and breeding stock to a large part of the county and two other villages in the county serve the remaining rural communities.

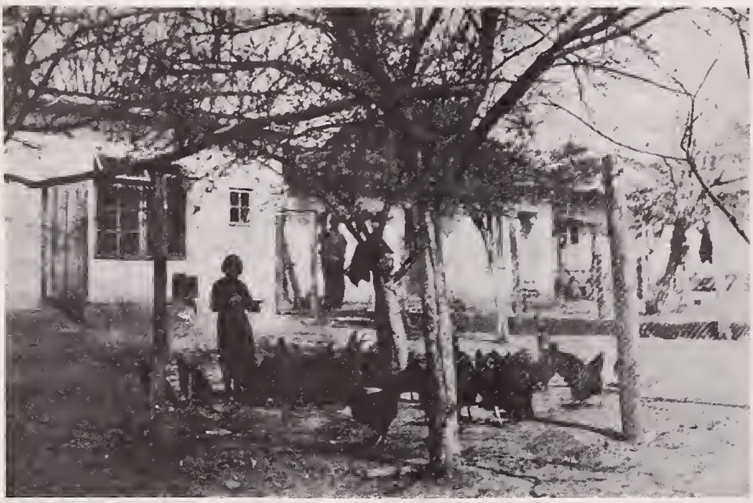

FIGURE 5.—Improved house and purebred peasant flock.

The standard of living in this first village has greatly improved as a result of the desire of the peasant population to develop similar programs for other agricultural enterprises and translate the increased income into higher standards of nutrition, health, sanitation, and recreation. The village now employs a homemaking specialist and a public health nurse and shares a doctor and a veterinary surgeon with nearby villages. During the summer a kindergarten is operated. The village has become a demonstration of rural improvement for Bulgaria and has been visited by people from other Balkan and Middle Eastern Countries.

The following year demonstration villages for each of 14 other counties were selected and a similar program developed. In these villages, 14 hatcheries were built and 610 model henhouses. The Central Poultry Experiment Station and government farms provided them with 4,346 cockerels, 4,348 pullets and 24,835 eggs for hatching.

In 1940 each of the 86 counties of Bulgaria had at least one model demonstration, and there were 120 in all. Exports of eggs and dressed poultry occupied the second place among all exports and confirms the Bulgarian proverb that "The lev (Bulgarian coin) is held up by the wings of the hen!" Not only has cash income greatly increased in these villages, but 250-300 eggs per capita per year are now consumed instead of the 65 to 70 previously kept at home.

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WARTIME RATIONING IN EIRE

Rationing of essential commodities, especially food products, is a relatively new endeavor for the Irish Government. In the 1914-18 period of the last war, Ireland, as a part of the United Kingdom, was subject to British regulation of commodity supplies. Predominately an agricultural section, Ireland in that period did not feel the lack of foodstuffs as stringently as did England, and experienced its principal shortages from insufficient stocks of wheat and sugar.

With Great Britain's entrance into the war in September 1939, Eire soon found it necessary to take steps to insure that supplies of certain essential commodities such as wheat and corn should be made available to the country as a whole. In the attainment of this purpose complete control of imported goods was to be directed by the Minister of Supplies. To assure the maintenance and distribution of supplies of wheat and corn, a non-profit corporation known as the Grain Importers (Eire) Ltd., responsible to the Minister of Supplies, was organized for the express purpose of handling all imports of wheat and corn. All grain import licenses previously issued by the Minister of Agriculture were revoked as of October 14, 1939. In the operation of this new grain importation regulation, it was proposed that any imported wheat or corn acquired by the Grain Importers (Eire) Ltd., should be especially designated for some particular port or destination with respect to local requirements or need of the grain in question. Millers were to be allocated a portion of each consignment in proportion to their normal usage of wheat or corn over a twelve-month period.[1]

On March 21, 1941, the Minister of Supplies announced that an Order had been made prohibiting "the sale in any hotel, restaurant, club, etc., of bread or any wheaten food at more than one course of the same meal."[2] For example, if bread were supplied with soup, no foodstuff derived from flour or wheat (pies, puddings, pastries, or biscuits) could be supplied at the same meal. If such additional food were demanded by the customer, a separate charge was to be made for it and the total amount of food served from flour or wheat extraction should not exceed 4 ounces. Two additional Orders aimed at conserving wheat supplies were also issued in this period. One increased the extraction of flour from 90 to 95 percent, and the other restricted monthly sales of flour by millers to the average monthly sales during the period September - November 1940.[3] As a result of disappointing crop returns in 1941, slow deliveries by farmers, and restricted imports, the Government on February 20 appointed a flour controller and announced that, beginning February 23, deliveries of flour from the mills would be reduced to 80 percent of the volume of deliveries in 1940. At the same time the extraction rate for flour milling was increased from 95 to 100 percent.[4]

A procedure similar to that employed for the importation of cereal grains was set up in November 1939, governing all imports of animal feedstuffs. To further insure equitable distribution of all feedstuffs, the Minister of Supplies issued an Order under the Emergency Powers Regulations of 1939 to the effect that no feedingstuffs imported under license by either the Grain Importers (Eire) Ltd., or Animal Feeding Stuffs (Eire) Ltd., companies could be distributed without the approval and direction of the Minister of Supplies.[1]

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[1] Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, December 1939, pp. 198-199.

[2] Emergency Powers (Restrictions on serving bread at Catering Establishments) Order, 1941.

[3] Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, March 1941, p. 12.

[4] Foreign Crops and Markets. Summary for March 1942.

On January 30, 1941, the Minister of Supply announced the issuance of the Emergency Powers (Tea) Order of 1941. Deliveries of tea to wholesale and retail merchants were restricted beginning February 1, as the result of notification from the British Ministry of Food that allocation of supplies of tea to Eire would be considerably reduced. These deliveries from wholesale to retail merchants were not to exceed 75 percent of those made in the period from July 1, 1938 to June 30, 1939. Retail merchants were also advised that retail sales of tea as from January 30 should not exceed 75 percent of stocks normally distributed to customers. Amendments effective as of April 5 of the same year limited retail sales to householders to "an amount sufficient to provide each member of the household over the age of 12 with 2 ounces of tea a week, and each member of the household not over the age of 12 years with one ounce of tea a week."[5] This ration was later changed in October 1941 limiting the quantity of tea per week to each person in the household to 1 ounce irrespective of age.

Due to abnormally dry weather conditions which adversely affected pasture lands in the summer and autumn of 1940, storage supplies of creamery butter to be used for domestic consumption during the period of mid-November to mid-April were considerably below normal consumption requirements. At the normal rate of consumption the butter stocks were not adequate to supply all consumption needs until the beginning of the new butter season in the latter part of April. It was, therefore, recommended by the Government that all creameries and wholesale merchants reduce supplies to retailers to 50 percent of normal purchases, and that retailers should also reduce their sales to consumers by a corresponding amount. Periodic distribution of wholesalers' stocks to retailers would be made on the basis of the degree to which retailers were able to reduce their butter sales to customers, thus operating as a penalty against retail distributors failing to limit their sales below normal consumption requirements.

After April 19, 1941, sales of cocoa by retailers to consumers were limited to one sale a week per customer in the amount of one-quarter pound. The same regulation prohibited wholesalers from delivering to a retailer in any month beginning May 1 a quantity of cocoa in excess of 50 percent of the average monthly deliveries made to a retailer during the year ended December 31, 1940.[6]

In an effort to conserve stocks of sugar, the Government finally resorted to the rationing of this commodity with the enactment of the Emergency Powers (Sugar) Order, 1941, dated August 7, which became effective August 9, 1941. The maximum weekly ration of a registered householder was set at 1 pound for each resident of a household irrespective of age. A still greater limitation on the distribution of sugar supplies as of this year was revealed in a press announcement in March to the effect that the Government had reduced the established weekly ration of 1 pound per person to three-fourths pound effective as of April 4, 1942.[7] The method followed in the administration of the sugar rationing is the same as that established for tea - namely, registration of householders by retail shopkeepers, thus limiting individual sales of these commodities to specifically designated licensed retailers. Recent information received in this office indicates that since August 1, 1942, sugar is obtainable only in exchange for ration coupons. The amount of the ration obtainable remains at three-fourths pound per week per person.[8]

[5] Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, March 1941, p. 13.

[6] Irish Trade Journal and Statistical Bulletin, June 1941, p. 67.

[7] New York Journal of Commerce, March 17, 1942.

[8] GERRITY, C. M. MONTHLY ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL REVIEW - EIRE. U. S. Cons. Rpt. 20241, 25 pp. 1942. [Typewritten.]

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NEW REPORTS

THE AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES OF MADAGASCAR.

By Bertha Merdian. Foreign Agriculture Report No. 7

The strategically important position of Madagascar high-lights the island's capacity to produce food in excess of domestic requirements. Lying at the southwest entrance to the Indian Ocean and sheltering Mozambique Channel, it controls the shipping lanes between the Atlantic Ocean and the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, India, and Ceylon. Rice, manioc, and corn, the basic food crops, are grown throughout the island, with substantial exports being made annually, chiefly to France. There are also exportable surpluses of cattle hides and beef. The crops produced principally for export to France include coffee, vanilla, cane sugar, legumes, oilseeds, fibers, fruits, and tobacco. Early in the current war the French authorities initiated plans for expanding the island's productive capacity. Information on progress under those plans is lacking, but it seems likely that occupation of the island by British forces has not interfered materially with the agricultural economy.

Famine has never been known in Madagascar. Its soil and climate are such as to insure the production of a wide variety of agricultural commodities. Of the few food items usually imported, the principal ones are flour and other farinaceous products. For the most part, native agriculture employs simple processes requiring few implements other than a long-handled spade. The use of modern methods and equipment is confined largely to French colonists or to native cooperative groups. Madagascar is dependent upon imports for manufactured consumer goods and for industrial equipment.

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